SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume XVII | Saturday, January 6, 1923 | Number 419

RHYTHM AND EDUCATION

One of the striking features of present day education both in schools and colleges is the attention bestowed on physical exercises. In the old days when the mass of children were reared in small towns and villages such attention to the body was superfluous, for the child's environment in fresh air and his occupations out of school hours endowed him with physical energy, but city life has altered all that: the school must now undertake responsibilities of which our ancestors in the township school never dreamed. This great movement constitutes a sound reform and the present generation of city children are reaping the benefit both in its direct value to health and in the respect it has created for the human body. It has done much to raise the moral standard of public life, although its immediate purpose was just to strengthen the power of muscles and nerves.

But it has not gone far enough. It recognized that the body is essential to the service of the mind: it saw that man and woman can not pursue their duties in the office and the store unless they are fit, but it overlooked deeper and finer elements in human nature; it ignored those relations between the body and soul of man which are comprehended in the one word *Rhythm*.

It would take many pages to describe the full meaning and purpose of rhythm in animated nature, and we must not attempt to do so. Some exponents of physical education claim that they make allowance for rhythmical feeling by having music played as an accompaniment to mass movements: others point out that the rhythms of the body find scope for expression in the delight of sport and games. This is certainly true since all movements which give pleasure are manifestations of rhythm: every muscle and nerve of the body seeks an outlet in that succession and order which constitutes the essence of rhythm. So far so good: but something more is demanded. Art is not satisfied with a subordinate place: the human body, like the human mind, is the finest product of creation, and its life, its expansion is not satisfied merely by vigor and activity but by the association of its movements with the deeper currents of emotion as felt in music, in poetry and in all the fine arts. The schools have neglected this impulse in human nature and so our students have been compelled to find satisfaction outside the school. The dancing halls, which rival the cinema as a popular attraction, offer the young people a poor substitute for what they ought and could find within themselves if rhythmical emotion were given its rightful place in our scheme of education.

We must not digress to comment on the evil influences of the dancing saloon and the music hall. Their abuses are notorious: when left to be exploited by base entrepreneurs they stimulate sensuality and are rightly distrusted by grave elders and by teachers, who know that the high moral purposes of education are thwarted when young people are carried away by such attractions. But the teacher has no option. The days of repression, either in school or home, have passed: our children are free: we deliberately train them in our schools on principles of individuality and free-

dom: they are encouraged to do as they please and we cannot be surprised if, when school days are over, they seek for satisfactions in art and rhythm. What we can do, what indeed we must do if we earnestly seek their welfare, is to develop capacities which will set free their higher nature and enable them to rejoice in the finest and best exercise of rhythmic faculty. We can provide the child while still at school with fine standards of appreciation; we can study his body-mind in its demand for artistic expression and afford such standards of taste as will enable him thereafter to choose the good and to refuse the evil. A similar situation is presented by the popularity of the cinema. We rightly deplore the vulgar and sensational attractions of the picture theatre, but we are helpless in combatting such influence so long as we refuse a place to drama within the school walls.

DANCING TO BE STUDIED AS A FINE ART

How then shall the teacher set the reform on foot? Is she to become a dancing mistress and teach the foxtrot and the waltz to her children? By no means: to do this would be merely to touch the fringe of the problem instead of probing it to the bottom. Ballroom dances are a superficial substitute for the deeper needs of young people: we can give them something more permanently attractive, more satisfying both to body and mind than is presented by the steps of a society dance.

If teachers will take the pains (and delightful pains they are!) to study the function of rhythm in their own experience they will secure a mastery of principles and motives which will enable them to guide their children's taste; they can reshape the syllabus of music and of physical training so that the public standard of appreciation and of behaviour will put out of commission the questionable attractions of popular dancing.

And we advocate such study not only because popular dancing has thrust the problem on the notice of the school, but because it is worthy on its own account to be held in regard. We are, in our inmost nature, subject to rhythm: the pulse that quivers from heart to veins: the legs that swing in motion like a pendulum, the hands which with infinite variety play the rhythms of piano and violin, the voice which trembles with the accents of the poet, the mobile face which expresses at every movement the sentiments of our inmost being: from head to foot we manifest, whether we will it or no, those truths which all great teachers have expounded from Plato onwards—of the profound relations between the outer and the inner, between the thought and feeling of the inner man and his expression through the physical frame.

These truths have been neglected, have been ignored, for reasons which lie patent in the history of modern education. It is one of the chief tasks of the present generation of teachers to recognize their importance: we have to re-educate ourselves in rhythmical expression so that art may once more claim its place in the ministry of life.

THE "CLASSICAL" SCHOOLS

Now when a teacher or an artist sets about to undertake this study he encounters a difficulty. There have already sprung up an embarrassing variety of systems and methods all of which use the word rhythm and profess to introduce the student to the mysteries of artistic expression. Some analysis or review of these systems is demanded which may help us to see what contribution is being made by each of them.

First of all there are two historic schools which aim to reproduce the models of far-off times. The so-called "classic" exponents turn to ancient Greece; they study the memorials left by the great sculptors and bid us move after the example of that

wonderfully artistic people. There is no doubt that the choric festivals of Greece afford illustrious examples for all time of the dedication of art to the highest functions of religion and of national life: and it is a fine exercise of taste for students now and again to try and reproduce a great classical drama from Æschylus or Sophocles. But even in the Athens of today the task is difficult: how much more difficult when the performers work in a climate and a culture so remote from the Athenian world. We know little of their music, still less can we communicate the spiritual, pagan sense of things which gave form to the joys and sorrows of a Grecian Chorus.

The practical outcome among those who profess to teach rhythm on such an antiquarian basis is disappointing. Methods of training are devised which are assumed to be like the methods of the choragus but can only be modern inventions; they lead to poses or postures, both of hands and feet and trunk, which become ungraceful and a-rhythmic so soon as they are transferred to modern life. You can in fact no more transplant Greek style in arms and limbs to our modern expressions than you can transplant Demosthenes to Westminster or Washington. We may well admit that a revival of Greek dancing is delightful to behold, especially to cultured folk steeped in ancient literature and *ethos;* as an exercise for students already versed in rhythmical values it may serve noble ends, but it can not be accepted as the foundation of a system.

FOLK DANCING

Coming nearer to our present civilization we have the Folk Dances of early European races which still survive among country folk and have here and there been carried by peasant folk to the New World of America. Cecil Sharp, whose researches have contributed so much to our knowledge in this field, has found in the West Cumberland Mountains of America and in Kentucky both folk songs and dances identical with those surviving in remote districts of England. This revival of old time art has rendered a great service, akin to the benefits conferred on music by turning to national resources in ballad and song as an inspiration for simple and direct expression of rhythm. Many thousands of teachers have learned Folk Dances not only for their own enjoyment but for the pleasure they afford to children. They are simple in construction, they are social, combining a story with a song, and they are popular just because they belong to the people and are a part of our national heritage.

The one criticism that they have to meet is that they are inadequate; they may satisfy for a while the needs of an undeveloped child, but they cannot lead him on a more complete expression of modern life. Just as the medieval ballad has a place in the appreciation of poetry from which the boy or girl passes forward to our modern literature, so in dancing the developing child is capable of a more intellectual effort to express himself. The teacher, who is no longer a child, soon tires of an endless repetition of the same movements, based on feelings and tastes which are no longer a part of modern art or modern outlook. Hence while the teacher will never despise the past; while he will enter thoroughly into the spirit of a Shakespearean play, dancing in the Forest of Arden, or of the peasant rejoicing in the woods and vales of Italy he is bound to seek for some higher forms of art. If indeed he does *not* go further: if he is content merely to learn by rote a collection of action songs and dances which he repeats with the children, his own development is arrested: nor can he hope to understand the needs of the children, who are no longer bound by the horizon of the medieval village but are planted in the twentieth century, amid the music and the

society which this age presents to their experience.

PROFESSIONAL DANCING

But if the teacher in search for rhythmic experience once forsakes the safe road of historical precedent where can he turn for help? Can he put himself under the instruction of ballet masters who from the days of the Medici[1] to the Russian Ballet of our time have delighted the eyes of court and populace? Now there can be no doubt that the cultivation of rhythmic movement in European courts up to the nineteenth century and of the opera down to our own day have done great things for the evolution of a noble art. Whoever inquires into this story, following the stages by which great artists like Anna Pavlova and Njinski were trained, through years of discipline, to reach their height of perfection, will recognize that in stage dancing and in opera we have a form of art which will always make its appeal. Its special value in contrast to the historical schools lies precisely in the fact that it *has* evolved. Both in its purity and in its degradation it has responded to the new impulses of time and country; like all who seek an audience on a stage, orators, preachers, dramatists, musicians, it has flourished or grown decadent just as the sentiments of the time demand. If, as we justly may, we blame the dancers and the ballet masters for corrupting the morals of youth we should be better advised to lay the blame on ourselves; for the stage supplies what the public demands and the public who flock to the performance have never been educated in the schools to ask for a finer product. It is then useless for a teacher to seek instruction from the schools of dancing since her aim is to find resources in rhythmic movement which will enable a new generation to make new demands, demands which the commercial, professional stage or a "society" conception of art can never satisfy. The very fact that the professional stage depends upon public display and upon the favour of the wealthy puts it out of court for educative purposes. For the last thing that a good teacher desires is to train his pupils with an eye to pleasing the public.

[1] See the sumptuous volume, *Dancing*, in the Badminton Library (Longmans, Green & Co., 1895).

THE CHILD AND HIS AUDIENCE

This feature of the situation is so important that we must dwell upon it at greater length. We started the inquiry into rhythm from one standpoint, considering solely the nature and quality of individual power in mind and body. Our plea for attention to rhythmic values in education has been based simply on the recognition of facts relating to the structure of each solitary person. But we are not solitary: we are social: all our enjoyments both intellectual and æsthetic are shot through with relations to our kind. The very movements, in voice, gesture, limb, on which the arts are based are copied from the behaviour of our fellows: and we in turn, as we make discoveries of our capacity, are impelled to communicate, to "show off," what we can do; we seek praise, we seek criticism, we spend our time with other artists in an incessant exchange.

Now as soon as the child comes to a realization of these relations, acquiring as we say a social sense, parents and teachers are up against a difficulty. This young creature has talent, natural grace and feeling for rhythm: even the weakest and dullest children have some traces of the divine in form and feature! Are these qualities to be exploited, displayed, admired, so that the pride of parent in his offspring and of teacher in her pupils may be gratified; or are they to be developed through discipline and study so that as the years advance the growing boy and girl can reach a high level of taste? Put in that way there can obvi-

ously be only one answer: the good of the child, his personal inner power in art, must not be sacrificed to the egotism of his elders. Yet it is notorious that the schools, working hand in hand with parents, are making this sacrifice all the time. In the old days the school was shut away from public notice: apart from an annual examination or prize giving nothing was done, nothing was felt to be necessary to bring the doings of little people before the notice of the public. But all that has changed: we have found delight in the fresh and naïve behaviour of the little ones; the school has come out into the world and provides us with what we call entertainment. The teachers sometimes defend this exhibition of children on the stage because in this democratic era the school is dependent upon public support. We have, so it said, to please the parents; we have to convince those who pay school taxes that the children are happy at school; so we invite them to witness the results of our teaching in drama, song and dance; their shortcomings are readily condoned in an atmosphere where all are prepared to be happy for the moment.

It is not too much to say that nine-tenths of the rhythmic teaching at present conducted in schools is governed by this motive. There is a whole literature of Rhythmic Movement books, Action Songs and the like provided with minute instructions whereby a pleasing effect may be produced just by training children to copy and perform. It may be said that such a travesty of art is better than nothing: better that our children should get some chance of rhythmic expression although they are treated as performing dogs. Since however they *are* children and not dogs they suffer far more: the mischief is wrought both in the inner life and in the social outlook. They come to believe that the arts of music and dancing are solely designed for social pleasure: they adopt insensibly the spirit of the commercial stage, and think that they have done well when they have secured the smiles of an indulgent audience. I need not enlarge on the moral perversions to which such an attitude leads: it threatens the child's development not only as an artist but as a social being: he is tempted to regard himself as the centre of a circle, to find excessive gratification in self-display instead of seeking values both in art and in society which will raise him above himself.

The remedy for such a degradation of art is clear. Every group of children who sing and dance and act must be trained to find adequate exercise, of mind as well as body, *in the art itself*, in its technique, in its subject matter, in the advancing power of judgment which their study confers. The best audience for a child's performance is that of his comrades, fellow artists, engaged with him in expressing and interpreting. In contrast to the books I have condemned let the reader consult Caldwell Cook's *Play Way*;[2] here he will see how a group of boys year by year develop their powers in speech and drama as a company of players without a thought of effect upon a wider circle. They are not concerned with a finished production but are engaged in perpetual rehearsal.

I have digressed in this last paragraph in order to show how hopeless it is to seek for help in rhythmic training from those who follow the example of the professional stage and base their teaching of children on motives of display. The object of education in art is not performance,[3] any more than the object of education in science is an examination: the child is "out for" experience: and the teacher, whether a professional or an amateur, whose mind is set upon display will only arrest his development. Even if a child could be put under

[2] W. Heinemann, London and New York, 1915.

[3] Compare Granville Barker's views in *The Exemplary Theatre*.

the care of a celebrated performer, an Isadore Duncan for example, I should regard it as a misfortune. For the great artists and the great scholars, with their minds centered on the evolution of their powers, are ill disposed to handle the immaturities of childhood. Adult life and developing life, fruit and bud, stand wide apart.

What these great artists can do for the teacher is to help him, with his refined mind, to reach out further into the complex possibilities of rhythm, as conceived by those who give their lives to the plastic arts. The popular music halls and operatic stage seldom give a chance to the real artist any more than the commercial theatre welcomes the struggling actors of the Repertory, until they have fought their way to fame. But he who seeks will find. At the present day on the Continent there are a number of genuine artists of the dance[4] who are seeking new resources for its expression; and it is among such pioneers that a school teacher who has already got some insight and experience can extend his range. While these professional folk, like their comrades in music and painting, have to please the public for the sake of livelihood, the best of them live for their art and, as we said above, it is the task of the schools and of the teachers to create a new public which will appreciate their endeavours.

WHY NOT LEAVE THE CHILD "FREE"?

Meanwhile we are still in search of help for the school teacher who is satisfied neither with the revivals of Greek and medieval dancing nor with the artists of the theatre. I shall in a moment direct the reader's attention to one great teacher who to my mind has contributed most to the solution of our problem, but before doing so let us be clear that some system and method *is* required for training in rhythmic movement. It is often said that children should be left alone, free to move hands and feet as they please. How charming, it is said, to witness boys and girls dancing spontaneously to the sounds of music! Why interfere with your rules and restrictions? Will you not simply spoil the native grace, the inherited taste and capacity of the young by imposing a system upon them? Undoubtedly you will if you make your system so rigid and mechanical as to leave no room for individual effort, but on the other hand if you provide no help at all you leave your child helpless, at the mercy of the latest fashion which his eyes can catch. We have had a recent example of this in our English cities: little school boys were left free to "dance" for the admiration of teachers and parents and the form their performance took was a copy, no doubt partly unconscious, of the style of Harry Lauder! Well, they might have done worse: and the parents were pleased for they also were entranced by that popular figure. But the illustration meets our point: the freedom that we desire for children is largely an illusion: what they demand is to have their limbs and frame set free from the inevitable repression of ordinary movement—just as they demand freedom to sing instead of being content with ordinary speech. But if in any art they are to find continued and progressive satisfaction they need guidance and training: the very fact that they copy the models around them proves that they need our help.

The infant, of course, can not be instructed: during the first years of life, until he is five or six, he just displays all sorts of impulsive motions which show his possibilities in rhythmic art: but his intentions are limited in these early efforts

[4] See *e. g.* J. E. C. Flitch: *Modern Dancing and Dancers* (Grant Richards, London, and Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, U. S. A., 1912). Hans Brandenburg: *Der Moderne Tanz* (G. Muller, Münich, 1916).

to gaining a mastery of his tools, arms and legs, hands and feet, just as voice and gesture have first to be accommodated to their functions, both for use and for grace. Only with the growth of observation and intelligence is he ready to put these organs under discipline. But when this epoch in his development has once arrived, the occasion should not be missed. No doubt if there is delay much may be done at later periods of life to remedy the oversight, but it is always harder to re-educate than to educate at the appointed time. These kindred arts, dancing and music, spring from the human frame itself: they require no accessories: their power springs direct from organic sensations planted within the self and hence they afford the earliest means by which intelligence and taste can be exercised with inner satisfaction. Hence by the age of five or six all normal children are ready for formal instruction both in singing and in rhythmic movement; many who in other studies remain dull and unresponsive until later years can be awakened to fine discrimination and intelligence most readily through the appeal of these arts. Leave them free to wander where they will and they will never advance.

MUSIC AS PARTNER OF THE DANCE

We have coupled music with the rhythmic exercises of limbs just because they have so much in common, although in essence they spring from a separate source. It is quite possible to dance without the aid of sound as is shown by deaf children. Anyone who visits a school attended by children who have been deaf from birth can witness their success in dancing, precise in time and harmonious in rhythm, although the notes of the piano which we hear as an accompaniment are shut out from their experience. Some modern teachers of dancing, e. g., Rudolf Laban[3] of Stuttgart, are impressed by this severance and seek to restore dancing to its rightful place by practicing the art apart from the instrument of music. But however much in logical theory we may accept this division between the two arts they have so much in common as to justify the teacher in treating them as part of one programme. And they belong to the same type of experience. In music the waves of sound stimulate the ear and find response in movements of organs in the throat and mouth; in dance the movements of winds, and trees and birds, the movements of one's fellows stimulate the limbs and find response in bodily rhythms.

The historical development of the two arts also strengthens the argument for treating them as one pursuit in schools. For various reasons, into which we need not enter, music has made enormous advances in the western world since medieval times: we have advanced in melody and harmony as well as in the use of instruments far beyond the epoch beloved of Cecil Sharp when everyone danced to the sound of fife and tabor, singing the simple ditties of the folk song. Modern music has forged ahead and adapts itself all too rapidly to the evolutions of a modern world: it has remained popular, but at the same time has advanced in technique to heights far beyond the grasp of the amateur. Its partner, dancing, is still in the backwoods: in spite of the efforts of the last twenty years to introduce variety into ballroom dancing the art remains, for the general public, less effective than it was left in the sixteenth century, when public opinion placed its ban upon the dancer while encouraging the musician to extend his range.

We are justified therefore in keeping the two arts in partnership, recognizing their independent sphere, recognizing also possibilities that the future may have in store when the arts of movement shall have evolved to a higher stage, but ready in our

[3] See R. Laban: *Die Welt des Tanzers* (Walter Seifert, Stuttgart, 1920).

present epoch to maintain the alliance for the benefit of both.

DALCROZE EURHYTHMICS

In the light of this association between these two great arts we are not surprised to find that the pioneer in the study of rhythm is a great teacher of music. M. Jaques Dalcroze began his career as a teacher of music in the Conservatoire of Geneva: he is first and last a musician and as such he devised his system, called at first Rhythmical Gymnastics and now known, in England and America, by the more comprehensive title *Eurhythmics*. The term *Eurhythmics* is not a patented epithet: it was used by Plato and just means good-rhythm: the singular form *Eurhythmy* is adopted by at least two other educational "schools" which endeavour to organize rhythmic experience. One of these, devised by Rudolf Steiner on a linguistic basis, forms part of a comprehensive programme of educational and civic reform founded on mystical and transcendental conceptions of the universe. An Anthroposophical Society has been set on foot in England to support Dr. Steiner's philosophy of education.[6] So to avoid confusion one speaks of *Dalcroze* Eurhythmics, uniting the personal name with the method which he has invented. This method has now been in operation for more than twelve years: it has found a large following in all the capitals of Europe where progressive musicians are seeking to advance their art and is being extensively applied by school teachers just so far as they can find opportunity themselves to secure good instruction.

M. Dalcroze's own writings are in French[7] and an inquirer can learn much from them, but here, as in the case of all arts and crafts, direct observation and experience is the only teacher.

The foundation principle of all Dalcroze's teaching—which he shares with thinkers in other fields of philosophy—is the *unity* of the body mind, with its organs of sight, of sound, of movement, in all artistic effort. He realizes that the body itself, alive from head to foot, shares in music, both in our expression of sounds and in hearing of them: we ourselves, *le corps vivant* (to use Adolphe Appia's felicitous terms)[8] live in music. Thus Dalcroze has been able to invent a technique, we might almost say a notation, by which the body can become actually a rhythmical medium, interpreting all that a piece of music has to convey, *except the sound*. The technique, the code, is necessary to represent bars, tones, musical values, since it is only through obedience to system that the body-mind can be attuned to the rhythms which music affords. The mastery of these elements presents no difficulty for the child—on the contrary they help him to grasp music and to translate the notation of written music into a full experience entertained by his limbs and frame. For the educator such a system has a special worth because it helps to solve the problem of calisthenics (beauty in physical gesture and style). We desire our children to move with grace, to have a keen sense of form in their personal bearing. But if we imitate the dancing mistress and train our children to attend *directly* to their own appearance we run the risk of vanity; it gives an impression of turning the schoolroom into a "beauty parlour"! By resorting to music and fastening the learner's attention on the expression of this art we achieve an identical result; our pupils grow in grace; but they are raised to a

[6] See *Fruits of Anthroposophy*, an introduction to the work of Dr. Rudolf Steiner. (London, 1922, The Threefolk Commonwealth Publishing Company, 74, Grosvenor Street, W. 1).

[7] A collection of his essays was published in an English form two years ago: *Rhythm, Music and Education* (Chatto & Windus) (George Putnam—American edition).

[8] Adolpe Appia: *L'œuvre d'art vivant* (Paris, Edition Atar, 1921).

higher stage, for both in intellect and in sentiment they are carried beyond themselves.

ART RANGES BEYOND SYSTEM

By the Dalcroze System we therefore mean just the acceptance of a scheme, a set of conventions by which the beginner who desires to develop his sense of rhythm can proceed. A critic, unwilling perhaps to accept the instructions of a master, may doubt whether all teachers should *have* to follow him. Why, it may be said, should not other arrangements be proposed by which arms and feet may be moved to represent the bars and tones of a piece of music? In theory no doubt many alternatives *might* be proposed, but as a matter of fact no one except Dalcroze has thought out a scheme; since it works so happily why not fall in with it? For the case is just the same as with any other convention: we might write the musical notes on other schemes of notation: we might construct an alphabet on an improved plan: but these arrangements are to hand and to secure cooperation we must work with one another. We can only be too grateful to Dalcroze for having devised a scheme which answers a great purpose with such simple means. The only danger in becoming a follower of the "master" is that we may never rise beyond the details of the system and reach the higher plane of freedom and variety that ought to be the reward of discipleship. Dalcroze does not pretend or desire to lay down rules for the production of works of art either in dancing or in the opera. He does not dictate action songs or set pieces: all he offers to do is to liberate *le corps vivant* and enable the artist, child or adult, to enter into the mysteries of music with heightened power: and at the same time to enter into the wider field of rhythmic experience which the dancer and the actor seek to present, outside and beyond the reach of music. Hence the method of Daleroze can be accepted and incorporated in the programme both of singing and of physical training just because its inventor admits its limitations. It provides, by way of strict convention and discipline, just so much as *must* be regulated on an agreed code: beyond that limit the student and the performer is free: and we may confidently anticipate that on such a foundation the rhythmic life of the coming generation will expand with a joy and power beyond aught of which we of an older time have dreamed.

CORPORAL RHYTHM AS A BASIS OF ALL THE ARTS

While advocating the adoption of the Dalcroze system, and accepting as quite valid the intimate relations between rhythm of sound and rhythm of the human frame, we should realize that the services which art can render to education will carry our children far beyond what they can achieve by learning Eurhythmics. The psychologists[9] are making clear to us how the principle of rhythm plays its part in all experience: nature and man are in eternal movement, from the tiniest cell that shows its life under the microscope to the stars that roll in the infinities of time and space. Our own bodies move to the rhythm of lungs and heart beat: in work and play, in speech and gesture we reach our fellow men through the concert of movement: the revival of all the arts, the exaltation of human endeavour and ideal in a thousand spheres, is being sought in a worthier appreciation of the unity of mind and body and the harmony of man with man. In this evolution, this personal development the first step is for the child to find himself, to realize that man becomes a living soul through the flesh and blood in which the spirit of man is manifest.

[9] *E. G., Le rythme* par O. L. Forel in the *Journal pour Psychologie und Neurologie*, Band 26, pp. 2-103 (Leipzig, J. A. Barth, 1920).

All the arts, not only music and dancing but their allies in poetry, painting and sculpture can only fulfill their mission for humanity, can only serve as the link between earth and heaven, when the human form finds freedom as the centre for their activity.

Après une bonne hygiène et la part des sports qui lui est compatible, l'education æsthetique du corps est, nous l'avons vu, *le premier degré de franchir*: sa maistrise, proportionée aux moyen individuels, le premier grade à obtenir. D'une juste pédagogie corporelle dépend l'avenir de toute notre culture artistique, et, il va de soi, l'existence même de l'art *vivant*.[10]

J. J. FINDLAY
THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER

ESSENTIALS OF A HIGH-SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

MANY people, including some high-school teachers, consider the department of vocational guidance an adjunct to the school; instead of this it is both foundation and superstructure. The teachers' vision of the field and aim of vocational guidance has been blurred to some extent (1) because the term has been confused with the type of limited education which seemed to be confined mainly to instruction in the manual arts; (2) because a few misguided enthusiasts claimed that it was possible to determine the exact vocation and then to select for the pupil the few necessary subjects, eliminate all others, and thus shorten the time spent in school; (3) because other misguided persons felt that "job-getting" was the important thing; and (4) because we who profess to see its possibilities have failed to prescribe in an illuminating and convincing way the fact that vocational guidance is an inclusive field which invites and demands the cooperation of all.

Vocational guidance has a cultural aspect in that it emphasizes the all round development of all the children of all the people. Likewise its value to society lies in the fact that while it emphasizes the development of the individual it does so that the individual, through his work which continually demands the best from the worker, will make his best contribution to society. Again if the individual selects his life-career and makes adequate preparation for it, he will be happy in this work and thus prevent the large loss resulting from turnover or from the inefficiency of the disgruntled, dissatisfied worker.

It is no longer necessary to argue the importance of vocational guidance with intelligent educators when they understand the real meaning of the term. The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, one of the most important committees that has ever been assigned a task in the history of education in this country, makes the following pronouncement in its Cardinal Principles:

> Vocational education should equip the individual to secure a livelihood for himself and those dependent on him, to serve society well through his vocation, to maintain the right relationships toward his fellow workers and society, and, as far as possible, to find in that vocation his own best development.
>
> This ideal demands that the pupil explore his own capacities and aptitudes and make a survey of the world's work to the end that he may select his vocation wisely. Hence, an effective program of vocational guidance in the secondary schools is essential. Unless plans for such guidance are thoroughly incorporated and continuously exercised, the efforts of the school in behalf of the youth in its charge will be largely misdirected.

From this quotation vocational guidance is to be definitely planned and this cannot be done by any happy-go-lucky method. Do we still hear that vocational guidance is another "school fad"? Consciously or unconsciously, good or bad guidance has been given by the home, school and environment from time immemorial. In the

[10] Adolphe Appia: *L'œuvre d'art vivant* (Paris, Edition Atar, 1921).

high school pupils were guided until recently either into the academic course or out of school; there was no other guidance possible under the course of study that was offered in most of the high schools.

Then one of the first essentials is an active, enthusiastic teacher who can "sell" vocational guidance to the principal if he has not already caught the vision of the possibilities of the work. If the high school principal cannot be completely convinced there is little chance for systematic guidance. However, the fact that many high school principals are already guiding pupils and have a broad view of education in its entirety frequently places the high school principal among the leaders in this movement.

The next step is to get the entire teaching force completely consumed with enthusiasm. This is often a difficult task but success in carrying out the program will be attained just in proportion as this is accomplished. There may be slackers, but the best teacher sees the possibilities of his subject for each pupil's future or else he fails in his task. The teacher should determine his work by a conscious aim. Doubtless many teachers teach their subjects as best they can because they are found in the course of study and not because they are selected by any conscious purpose.

How different the end will be when each teacher realizes that he may encourage the pupil to discover his powers and possibilities with a view to investing them and also that he may teach the subject not as an end but as a means of self-discovery. Teachers often do more guiding than they know. Statistics from compulsory attendance reports from different cities tell us that a greater percentage of the "drop-outs" occurs because children do not like school, or the subject, than for any other one reason even that of financial necessity.

Cheerful cooperation of the entire teaching force is essential. What can each teacher do? This is a short question but volumes would be required to contain the answers.

History and civics, as social sciences, offer many illustrations of the relations of the individual to the various social groups of which he is a member and of the opportunities pupils have to develop habits and traits of good citizenship. A wider knowledge of the vocations and of the workers is necessary in order that many of our community relations be rightly understood.

Many pupils often have their dormant faculties aroused through science and an enthusiastic teacher.

The possibilities of each subject might be mentioned, but wide-awake teachers always discover these. I shall mention only one more.

Teachers of English through systematic composition work and reading can get serious thought on life and its problems. When more of our teachers of literature realize the high and lofty spirit of the vocational guidance movement, the opportunities for vocational appreciation through the appeals and inspiration of the best literature will be unlimited. This is possible only when the spirit of guidance is present in the teacher. You can scarcely name a classic on the list that does not abound in wealth of assistance in some phase of vocational guidance. One from Ruskin will suffice: "When men are rightly occupied their amusement grows out of their work as the color-petals out of a fruitful flower."

As a summary of a teacher's responsibility permit me to quote Ruskin again: "No teacher can truly promote the cause of education until he knows the mode of life for which that education is to prepare his pupil."

One of the best ways to make enthusiasm contagious is for a group of teachers who believe in guidance to interest the pupils singly and in groups. The conservative and possibly the reactionary teacher will

fall into line. Again vocational guidance topics may be used as the basis for discussion at the meetings of the faculty. Here are some of the topics discussed during one year (twenty meetings) by the teachers in a junior high school:[1]

1. Vocational Guidance as a Function of the Junior High School was presented by the principal.
2. Organization and Differentiation of Courses.
3. School Socialization.
4. The Administration of Vocational Guidance in Washington Junior High School.
5-6. Home Visiting as a Function of the Vocational Counsel.
   - *a.* Choice of course.
   - *b.* Prevention of elimination.
   - *c.* General investigation.
     1. Tardiness.
     2. Irregular attendance.
     3. Requests for part-time employment.

   (Home room teachers who desire to come into immediate contact with the community may utilize free periods for visiting with a counselor. Arrangements will be made upon request.)
7. Psychological Tests and Vocational Guidance.
8-9. Literature for Teachers on Vocational Guidance Problems.
   - *a.* Books.
   - *b.* Government pamphlets.
     1. Bureau of Education.
     2. Bureau of Labor Statistics.
     3. Child Welfare Bureau.
10. Sources of Vocational Information for Students.
   - *a.* Library.
   - *b.* Newspapers and magazines.
   - *c.* Lectures and trade exhibits.
   - *d.* Industrial trips.
11. The Acquiring of Vocational Information by Students.
   - *a.* Class meeting programs.
   - *b.* Assembly programs.
   - *c.* Reference reading paralleling subjects in the school program.
   - *d.* The English lessons.
   - *e.* Club activities.
12. The Method of Employment Certification.
   - *a.* Legal requirements.
   - *b.* Actual process.
13. Vocational Placement.
14. Follow-up Work.
   - *a.* Through questionnaires.
   - *b.* Through alumni meetings.
   - *c.* Through home visits.
15. Vocational Guidance through the Continuation School and Employment Supervision.
16. The work of other cities in Vocational Guidance: New York, Cincinnati, Grand Rapids, Seattle, Boston, Minneapolis, Pittsburgh.
17-18. The Teacher as a Counselor.
   - *a.* Obligation to vocationally informed.
     1. Knowledge of student's vocational aptitudes.
     2. Knowledge of school organization.
     3. Knowledge of civic needs.
   - *b.* Counsel to students.
     1. Choice of course (7a grades).
     2. Change of course (8th grades).
     3. Prevention of elimination (all grades).
19. Contributions of Vocational Guidance to Student Training.
   - *a.* Motivation of effort in school work.
   - *b.* Awakening of vocational ambition.
   - *d.* Self respect through social service.
   - *e.* Realization of true democracy.

Another junior high school[2] had a vocational guidance week. Speakers before the assembly presented the importance of preparation for one's life career and posters in all the corridors showed the value of education in many of the occupations and in the enjoyment of one's leisure and home. In a senior high school[3] every teacher discussed the value of his own subject with every class. On one afternoon of this week the elementary school principals of the entire city visited this high school while in session. After dismissal, they met with the teachers of this school and the department of vocational guidance. Through similar meetings the entire school system will be united in giving guidance to pupils before they have decided to leave school.

While every teacher should be a guide to the immature pupils, one person or a committee should be chosen who will systematically direct the guidance work of the

[1] Washington Junior High School, Rochester, N. Y.

[2] Latimer, Pittsburgh, Pa.

[3] Fifth Avenue, Pittsburgh, Pa.

particular school or of all the schools in the system. The director should be a person with a broad and liberal education, with a more or less intimate knowledge of occupations generally and particularly of those of his own community, with interest in the civic conditions—organizations and in the economic laws and practices, and with a personality that commands respect from all classes and invites hearty cooperation among all his associates and assistants. He should have as much special training in guidance as he can get before he enters upon his duties. Of course in the past it has been impossible to get a specialist of many years training because the work has been definitely organized for a short time only. The assistants or counselors should be conversant with the value of each subject in the course of study, interested in the extra-curricular activities of the pupils, acquainted with the social and economic problems of his group, sympathetic with the adolescent in his diversified abilities and his ephemeral interests, capable of analyzing vocations so that the youth may select for personal development and for service to mankind, and possessing a clear conception of his duties and a wide vision of his opportunities.

The following official program approved by Dr. W. M. Davidson, Superintendent of Schools,[4] gives a definite piece of work to be done by the counselor for each of the high school grades:

A. Prospective junior high school pupils.

1. Group conferences with regularly scheduled classes in elementary schools for a discussion of the value of the high school and its importance in assisting in the realization of individual plans.

B. Junior high school pupils.

1. 7B. Group visitations by regularly scheduled classes of high school departments in order to get acquainted with facilities of the high school other than those with which the pupils come in contact for the purpose of developing an appreciation of the opportunities offered by high school. Group conferences with regularly scheduled classes for the discussion of vocational aims and the filling out of blank form V. G. 1.

2. 7A. Group conferences with regularly scheduled classes for explanation of courses open to 8B students, and discussion of the aims of the various courses. Conferences with individual students for the determination of 8B schedules.

3. 8B. Group conferences with regularly scheduled classes for discussion of significance of subjects pursued in various courses.

Conferences on blank form V. G. 1 for possible changes.

4. 8A. Group conferences with regularly scheduled classes for the discussion of the value in further education. Individual conferences on courses and electives for ninth year programs.

5. 9B. Group conferences with regularly scheduled classes for discussion of importance of vocational aims in planning a high school program.

Discussion of blank form V. G. 1. Changes indicated.

6. 9A. As in senior high school program.

Program for counselors in the senior high schools, covering his relations with all of the school. This does not provide for the many necessary personal conferences required to adjust the misfit.

A. It shall be the duty of the counselor to meet with all prospective incoming pupils twice before they enter high school. When possible, one of these meetings should be so planned that parents may be present when the different courses are explained. It shall be the duty of the counselor at this meeting to stress:

(*a*) The need of training beyond the elementary school.

(*b*) What the Pittsburgh Public Schools have to offer beyond the elementary school.

(*c*) Explain the courses offered in the high school and where they are intended to lead.

(*d*) Explain how the home and school can cooperate for the best interests of the pupil.

(*e*) State requirements for place on honor roll or membership in Honor Society.

It shall also be the duty of the counselor at one of these meetings to advise with all prospective pupils regarding their individual programs of studies.

B. It shall be the duty of the counselor to meet all 9B pupils in the regularly scheduled classes or groups during the early part of the semester. At this meeting, blank form V. G. 1 will be explained by the counselor and filled out by the pupils. This meeting will offer opportunity for emphasizing the need of vocational information, for encouraging a study of the vocations, and

[4] Pittsburgh, Pa.

for urging a thorough preparation of school tasks.

The counselor should also explain his function in the school.

9A. An inspirational and explanatory talk to all 9A pupils in regularly scheduled groups or classes. At this meeting, the counselor should undertake to explain (1) the kind of credits required for graduation from each course offered in high school, (2) the requirements for definite college courses and the necessity of the pupils' making early application to the college, (3) the opportunity that comes to pupils who do high-grade work throughout their entire high school course to participate, on graduation, in the award of scholarships as are offered by many colleges, and (4) the requirements for entering vocational life on leaving high school.

This conference should prepare pupils to fill out blank form V. G. 14 at a meeting to be arranged by the counselor later in the semester. This meeting may well be held with the respective report groups. The attention of 9A pupils should be called to the vocational possibilities of Pittsburgh and the work of the Public School Employment Offices.

10B. The counselor shall meet 10B pupils in regularly scheduled groups when special emphasis shall be laid on Pittsburgh industrial life and the kind of opportunities offered young people trained and untrained.

10A. The counselor shall meet all 10A pupils in regularly scheduled classes or groups where he shall undertake to sell the last two years of high school work to them. The opportunities of other educational media than the high schools should be explained to them but only by way of comparison as to the opportunities offered. These other schools should include the public evening high schools, correspondence schools, private business schools, and other special schools of similar character.

11B. The counselor should meet with all 11B pupils in class or other special groups in order that a review may be made of the best use of electives. This should be done during the first two weeks of the semester so that any necessary schedule changes may be made.

11A. There should be individual conferences with all 11A pupils during this semester. Such a conference should make certain that every pupil's program is complete to date and that there is a proper understanding of what is to be accomplished during the senior year, both as to immediate vocational aims or college entrance requirements.

12B. A short talk to groups or special classes, setting forth the purposes of the local placement offices should be given.

12A. The counselor should meet all pupils of this group personally who may need his services in arranging for college entrance or for any other purpose. He should also arrange a meeting at which representatives of the placement offices may be given an opportunity to explain what can be done for those not going to college.

The high school counselors felt that they should make a weekly report which includes many significant items: interviews in school, returned to school, interviews with patrons and with employers, group conferences, follow-up work, kinds of work to which pupils were referred, applicants sent to placement office.

It will be noticed that no discipline cases are referred to the counselors. To delegate this part of the administrative work to the counselor would put up a bar between the counselor and many of those whose confidence and good-will he wishes. The relations between the counselors and pupils must always be free and cordial. There must be no stigma attached to an interview with the counselor.

The nearest approach to disciplining cases is in a business school where the counselor meets all of the tardy pupils because those who are late are often the ones who are behind in their lessons, who are apt to become discouraged, and who will be late to work and probably lose their position. This counselor does not lose any friendships by the way she handles these cases. She often visits the home and explains the importance of punctuality with the result that the pupil attends regularly and punctually and feels free to consult the counselor about her work in school and plans for life. Another counselor has worked out a one-page information sheet about each of 15 or 20 occupations, including brick-laying, plumbing, carpentry, dentist, pharmacist, lawyer, etc. These have been mimeographed and are given to pupils as well as teachers. The same counselor uses Dr. Brewer's outline for study of vocations. Many principals have appointed

standing committees of the faculty on vocational guidance. The counselor is a member of the committee but not the chairman. This plan enlists the interest and ability of more teachers.

Again the value of a counselor lies not only in the countless things he does but also in the helpful way in which kind acts are continually done in counsel room, in the corridor, everywhere; in other words the great value is in the spirit which the counselor disseminates throughout the school organization.

The question that comes to every administrator is, where can I get a director or counselor? A few of our colleges are offering courses in vocational guidance. Any system of schools that can get specially trained men and women for this work is fortunate. If you cannot get trained people, should the organization of a department of vocational guidance be delayed? My answer is, "Do not wait for trained people; train them in your own system at once, if you have capable teachers or other able men and women who believe in it and who are willing to work under direction." In Pittsburgh the counselors and other members of the department are people who were recognized as capable, sympathetic, studious teachers. These work in their respective schools or fields and then in the bi-weekly meetings (the clearing house) discuss the methods and results of their work. A list of topics for the meetings of the entire year is compiled from the lists given by individual counselors. Great interest is taken in these discussions, partly because they are the counselors' own problems.

Has the personal essential been overemphasized? Should the preceding have been taken for granted? Perhaps so. Nevertheless many similar plans have failed just because the human equipment was not taken into consideration. All other essentials, important as they are, depend for their success upon those engaged in the work.

After the school has the persons fitted for the work, the goal will not be reached unless vocational guidance is an integral part of the school, unless time is provided in the school program for the counselors to meet the boys and girls and to do their other duties. In a school of 500 or less the counselor should not have a reporting or home room, and should be free one-third to one-half of the time. In a school of 1,000 there should be two counselors or one whose time is practically all given to his duties. If the work is as important as is claimed ample time must be given.

A special room equipped with desk, filing cabinet, table, and chairs should be at the disposal of the department. Office hours should be plainly advertised. Pupils should feel free to come to this room at any time. Charts, books, college catalogues, and many other helps should be in this room for the pupils.

In most junior or senior high schools there is a course in vocational civics, study of vocations, or life-career. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon this phase of work. How can these immature people select wisely when they are ignorant? By this it is not meant that pupils should definitely select their life-work too early but pupils should have as wide information as possible about occupations before making even a tentative choice. Pupils must be made to feel that they are not required to decide prematurely and that the counselors are advisers and not dictators. If they would analyze a few occupations according to the outline on page 17 of Bulletin 1918, No. 19, entitled *Vocational Guidance in Secondary Education*, they would appreciate that a life-career is not to be decided by a mere whim.

The interest of the parents of the pupils should be enlisted in the guidance problems. During the past two years we have

sent letters home with the report cards at the end of every report period. One set of cards went to the parents of the pupils of the fifth and sixth grades, a second to those of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, and a third to those of the senior high school grades. A different phase of vocational guidance has been emphasized each time: selecting high school subjects, placement bureau, vocation, punctuality, value of education to a community.

Personal record cards should be filled out for each pupil very early in school life and kept on file in the counselor's room. Suggestions concerning the information wanted can be obtained from cards in use in the various vocational guidance departments. No two systems will probably have the same but other cards may be suggestive. Don't ask for information on your blanks that will never be used. These cards should be convenient when the interviews take place.

If the compulsory attendance or work certificate office is not included in the department of vocational guidance the two offices should be in adjacent rooms. No pupil should be permitted to get a work certificate until he is interviewed by a member of the department of vocational guidance. He should be returned to full-time or part-time school if at all possible. If this is impossible his employment should be secured or approved by the department.

Placement is one of the most important parts of guidance. To place the child or young person where he can do his best work requires a knowledge of what the position demands and promises and of what the potentialities of the person are. The school records, the intelligence tests, the home conditions, the health, the likes and dislikes are important factors in intelligent placement. This may be done by each school or better by a central office where all records are kept and where all inquiries for help are sent. The work of this office may be done by the school itself or in connection with the state, Junior Division of the U. S. Employment Service or with some other organization.

Much of the guidance and placement either of the 14-16 child or older will be temporary unless they are followed up to see that they are preparing themselves to fill their present positions better or better positions presently or that the working conditions are what they ought to be.

One other important factor in this work is the library. In our own city last year we asked every boy and girl in all our high schools to give his first and second choice of vocations. These were compiled and given to the librarian who prepared a bibliography for each one of the 283 occupations. Two lists were prepared: one contained information suitable for the teacher and the other contained books and magazine articles written for children.

No program would be up to date that did not include the use of the radio-phone. A series of twenty-five ten-minute talks were given from KDKA broadcasting station through the kindness of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company. SCHOOL AND SOCIETY published this program in the issue of May 27, 1922. The many letters of inquiry from all over the eastern part of the country proved conclusively that the wireless is an effective method of preaching the gospel of guidance.

To summarize: Some of the essentials of a high school vocational guidance program are: 1. The principal and teachers must believe that vocational, moral, and educational guidance is the main purpose of the school. Our boys and girls must be prepared to do the best for themselves, to serve their respective communities, to live amicably with fellow-men, and to get into that life-work that will call out their very best powers and abilities.

2. Directors or counselors must give

their best thought and unlimited time to aid the pupils in selecting school subjects, to assist the teachers, to confer with parents and with teachers of elementary schools, and to study the occupations and working conditions of the community.

3. Courses of study so arranged that every member of a democratic society shall get "all the education and that sort of education for which as a free spiritual agent in relation of citizen he has the capacity and need." The avocation is as important as the vocation.

4. A counselor for the immature child who comes for his working certificate and who often can get no help from his home.

5. A placement office whose counselors have in mind both the welfare of the individual and the interest of the employer.

6. Outside agencies as the library do much to acquaint the learner with the conditions of the work-a-day world.

7. The vocational guidance program ought to be so complete that it will be working at every point in the pupil's career rather than at a few specific times.

EDWARD RYNEARSON
DIRECTOR OF DEPARTMENT
OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE,
PITTSBURGH, PA.

ARTHUR WESLEY DOW

PROFESSOR ARTHUR WESLEY DOW, head of the department of fine arts at Teachers College, Columbia University, who first introduced the Japanese wood block method into the schools of this country, died suddenly at his home on December 13. With his passing, Teachers College, as well as the art world at large, will miss a great artist and teacher. Professor Dow has directed the art activities at Teachers College for more than eighteen years. Previously he was curator of Japanese art at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Born in Ipswich, Massachusetts, in 1857, he received his preliminary education in New England, and afterwards studied in Paris, where he was a pupil of Boulanger and Lefebvre. He was awarded medals at the Buffalo, Pan-American and Panama-Pacific Expositions.

Prior to coming to Teachers College in 1904, Professor Dow was instructor of art at Pratt Institute and at the Art Students League. For many years he has directed the Summer School of Art at Ipswich, Massachusetts. While pursuing his work at the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston he came in contact with Professor Fenollosa, formerly imperial art commissioner to the Japanese government. Professor Fenollosa was at the time lecturer on the philosophy and history of art at the Boston Museum. Here the philosopher and artist worked together. To this association Professor Dow attributes his impetus toward the revolutionizing of art methods which he began in the schools of this country. He was also the first to start the study of art methods of primitive peoples. He did much to stabilize art, especially during the war, as is illustrated by him in an article entitled "Art service in war and peace." The art department of Teachers College has grown under his able direction from one section of thirty-five students to more than seven times that number. Professor Dow's influence upon public school art has spread with great rapidity due to the fact that his pupils in Teachers College are located in public school systems all over this country.

The books he has written on art are internationally known. "Composition" has had a wide distribution in England as well as in the United States where it has gone into seven editions. In 1915, the *Delineator* published a series of articles by him on "Art appreciation."

Professor Dow received wide recognition as an artist and as a teacher. His death is an irreparable loss to his students, his colleagues and his friends.

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

RELATIONS OF FRENCH UNIVERSITIES WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES

In a recent number of the *Revue de France*, M. Firmin Roz has an article on the relations of French universities to foreign countries, which is abstracted in the *Journal* of the American Medical Association. For a number of years France has made serious efforts to induce foreign teachers and students to visit France, and to open up the way for French teachers and students to reside for a time for study in some foreign country. The management of the matter has been entrusted chiefly to the Office national des universités et école françaises, which is the representative of the large institutions of higher learning. Every year, two American universities, Harvard and Columbia, open their classrooms to a representative of higher education from France. These French professors remain at their post for a year or at least one semester. With the school year 1921-1922 was begun the exchange of professors of applied science between several large universities of the United States and the universities of France. In many other universities and colleges of the United States, French instructors and professors hold permanent positions. There are also about twenty in British universities, and around thirty in the secondary schools of Great Britain. In the Scandinavian universities (Copenhagen, Christiania, Upsala and Lund), four positions are held by French lecturers. In the Netherlands (University of Utrecht), a distinguished French mathematician has been teaching for the last three years, and has been honored by being chosen a member of the Royal Academy of the Hague. With Belgium, on June 17, 1921, "an agreement concerning scientific, literary and scholastic relations" was concluded. With Italy a similar agreement was signed, March 5, 1919. A French professor has also received a call to the University of Sofia. Another is giving instruction in the University of Warsaw. The universities of Krakow and Poznan claim one each. June 15, 1919, an agreement was signed with Roumania, where a veritable French university mission, so to speak, consisting of thirty-three professors, is to be established.

For the last three or four years, there has also been an exchange of students—men and women—between France and foreign countries, more particularly with the United States, where, since 1918, many scholarships for foreign study, especially for women, have been offered. As evidence of appreciation of this generous offer of the American universities, the French government placed at their disposal thirty more scholarships in our best educational institutions for women, such as the Ecole normale supérieure in Sèvres. The American Field Service, in turn, has dedicated the balance left in its treasury, at the close of the war, to the founding of thirty scholarships to be used for study at various French universities, some of which have shown their approval of the plan by establishing supplementary scholarships in favor of American and other foreign students.

THE CONFERRING OF DEGREES ON WOMEN AT CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY

The syndicate appointed to draft ordinances to carry out the provisions of Statute A with regard to conferring titles of degrees on women students, have issued a further report in which they have made certain modifications in their previous report.

They have relieved the vice-chancellor and the registrary of the labor of affixing their signatures to diplomas already earned; they have defined the meaning of the phrase "receiving instruction in the university"; they have provided for research students in residence at Girton or Newnham being regarded as supernumerary; and they have provided that a woman student who is "allowed the ordinary" shall be qualified for the title of a degree. Further, they have introduced regulations permitting women students, so long as there are no tripos examinations in agriculture or in architecture, to enter for the pass examinations in these subjects, and, if successful, to receive the titles of the degree.

The whole question of fees has been reconsidered in the light of the opinion of the Financial Board, and the syndicate now propose that a woman student should pay a fee of £2 in each year of study as well as the registration fee, that the fees in music should no longer

differ from those payable by members of the university, and that while the fees paid for the titles of the degrees of bachelor and master of arts should be lower than those payable by members of the university, seeing that they do not qualify for membership of the senate, the fees to be paid by women for the titles of professional and higher degrees should not be differentiated from those payable by members of the university, no special academic privileges being involved.

The syndicate add that they have again considered the advisability of introducing a regulation formally admitting women to instruction in the university, but as the whole report goes on the assumption of the continuance of the present practice they think that it is undesirable to complicate the suggested ordinances by a regulation the exact terms of which would necessarily be controversial. Should occasion ever arise for such a regulation the introduction of an amendment to the regulations now proposed would not be prejudiced by these regulations being in force. On the question of admission to the University Library, the syndicate are of opinion that it does not fall within their province to make regulations regarding the use of the university library by women students, but, especially in the interests of research students and of those who take titles of degrees, they venture to express the hope that the whole question will be dealt with by the Library Syndicate at an early date, and they recommend accordingly.

THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS

PENSIONS, undergraduate survey courses and college athletics were the chief subjects of discussion at the ninth annual meeting of the American Association of University Professors, held at New Haven, Conn., on December 28 and 29.

Committee P, on pensions and insurance, reported its efforts during the past year to secure from the Carnegie Corporation more adequate representation of the views of faculty members. Resolutions were unanimously adopted by the convention reaffirming those of last year and recommending to the local chapters that the members take up through their respective faculties the problem of guaranteeing a suitable retiring allowance at age 65 "unless action has already been taken."

Discussion at the Friday morning session centered about the report of Committee G on freshmen initiatory courses. Representatives of Brown, Lafayette, Kentucky and other institutions questioned in considerable detail Professor Coss, of Columbia, who presented the report of the committee, in the absence of Professor Wilkins, the chairman, as to the relative value of the types of survey courses described in the report and the method of conducting them—whether by section instructors for the entire course or specialists from the various departments. Professor Coss made clear that, given the definite purpose of the Columbia survey course, the Columbia experience was all in favor of the section instructor as opposed to the specialist.

Reports were also presented on the personnel division of the American Council recently established at Washington; on promotion of research; on local chapter organization, and on publicity. Reporting for the committee on freedom of teaching, President Denny reported action of the council and the special committee in respect to the Fundamentalist movement. Members also had their attention drawn to an obnoxious rider to the copyright bill now pending in the Congress, which, it was asserted, would make it a penal offense to purchase English books direct from England. Following an animated discussion on athletics, the president was authorized to appoint a committee to proceed with an investigation of the place of athletics in college work. President Denny announced that the officers would take the initiative in having a joint committee formed, to include representatives of the college and university associations, physical directors in colleges and the athletic coaches.

New officers elected included Professor T. N. Carver, of Harvard University, vice-president, and the following members of the council: F. C. Babbitt, Trinity; H. H. Bender, Princeton; E. R. Cummings, Indiana; D. B. Easter, Washington and Lee; A. O. Leuschner, California; Julian Park, Buffalo; F. N. Scott, Michigan; E. O. Sisson, Reed; G. Terrell, Kentucky; E. H. Wilkins, Chicago. The present

president, treasurer and secretary continue in office.

NEW YORK CITY AND ITS COLLEGES

ANSWERING the attacks of the Hylan administration on the College of the City of New York and Hunter College, counsel for these two institutions, Charles H. Tuttle and Carl E. Peterson, have served on the corporation counsel a brief in support of their application for a mandamus to require the board of estimate to put back in the 1923 budget the salary requirements which the board had cut out.

The amounts allowed each institution are mandatory and counsel insist that the city violated the law when it cut the appropriations established by the legislature. The allowance to the City College by the legislature is $350,394.22 and the board of estimate cut it to $123,835 for next year. The amount to which Hunter College is entitled is $123,758.42 and the board of estimate allowed only $40,202.32. The City College wants $226,559.22 put back in the budget and Hunter College wants $83,556.10. Counsel for the institutions maintain that the action of the board of estimate was merely another evidence of the desire of the Hylan administration to do away with both colleges entirely.

In a statement Mr. Tuttle said:

The issue presented by the brief filed in the name of the board of estimate is none other than the legality of the very existence of these two colleges, and it is but right that the citizens of this city should know at once that this is the real attack and the real issue.

The principal contention urged in the brief for the board of estimate is that the levying of taxes in this city for the support of these institutions, which are established and required by law to furnish higher education gratuitously to the graduates of the city's public schools and governed by special boards, composed of residents of the city appointed by the mayor, is not a city purpose within the meaning of Section 10 of Article VIII of the State Constitution. If that were true, then the city could not even voluntarily appropriate a dollar for the support of either City College for young men or Hunter College for young women, for in that event the city could not even voluntarily levy a tax for such purpose.

Mr. Tuttle stated that the legislature did not act extravagantly when it increased salaries, as a competent faculty had to be retained and the cost of living had enormously increased.

By the Lockwood-Donohue law passed in 1919 the salaries of the teachers of the public schools were increased 95 per cent. over the salary scale in 1907, whereas by Chapter 120 of the Laws of 1921 the salary scale in these two colleges was increased in only the modest amount of about 35 per cent. over 1907. The assertion that that scale of salaries is more liberal than the scales in Columbia, Yale, Harvard and Princeton is untrue. Only this year in the annual report of Columbia University its president, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, recommends the establishment of ten professorial positions with an annual salary of $10,000 each, twenty-five professorial positions with an annual salary of only $7,500 each, and a minimum for the professorial grade of $6,000 per annum. Under Chapter 120 of the Laws of 1921 the minimum for City College and Hunter College is fixed at $5,000 per annum and the maximum at $8,000.

In a reply made public on January 1, Mayor Hylan says:

The question presented by the legislature's arbitrary conduct is the fundamental question whether the board of estimate, elected by the people of the City of New York to administer their affairs and to exercise its judgment in spending the people's money raised by taxation, should fulfill this solemn and responsible duty or whether such duty shall be usurped and exercised by an up-state Republican legislature, hostile to the interests of the people in New York City.

Legislators are elected to make the laws—not to direct the financial or administrative affairs of any city. When the trustees of these two city institutions and their attorneys go to Albany and seek the intervention of upstate legislators to impose heavy financial burdens on the people of New York City, it is the duty of the board of estimate to overcome the effects of such legislation.

APPOINTMENTS AT TEACHERS COLLEGE

THE trustees of Teachers College have announced the appointment of Dr. Stephen S. Colvin, of Brown University, as professor of education. Professor Colvin has a nation-wide reputation for his studies in psychology as applied in the field of the measurement of intelligence. His mental tests for students, like those of Professor Thorndike, have created interest throughout the college world. It has been because of his efforts that the work of

mental testing in connection with educational guidance has been introduced at Brown University. Professor Colvin is a graduate of Brown; he studied at Clark University and was a student in the University of Berlin and also in the University of Strasbourg, where he took his doctor's degree in 1897. He was professor in the University of Illinois 1901-12, and in Brown University from 1912 to the present time. He is the author of several books on psychology and philosophy and a frequent contributor to psychological and educational journals.

Teachers College has also appointed to professorships in education Dr. George A. Coe and Dr. Albert Shiels. Professor Coe is a graduate of the University of Rochester and of Boston University, where he took his doctor's degree in 1891. He was a student in the University of Berlin, and afterwards became professor of religious education in the University of Southern California, in Northwestern University, and in Union Theological Seminary. He is a leader in the field of religious education and the author of several books on education, notably "The Psychology of Religion" and "The Religion of a Mature Mind."

Dr. Shiels is a graduate of the College of the City of New York. He was teacher, principal and district superintendent of the schools of New York City from 1890 to 1913, director of the division of reference and research of the New York City Board of Education, 1913-16, superintendent of schools of Los Angeles, 1916-1919. He is actively identified with movements affecting the immigrant and the assimilation of foreign population. Dr. Shiels's appointment in Teachers College is on the Schiff Foundation, endowed by Mr. Felix M. Warburg in memory of Jacob H. Schiff.

THE PROVOST OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

HAVING accepted the resignation of Major General Leonard Wood, governor-general of the Philippines, as head of the University of Pennsylvania, the board of trustees of the university on December 27 elected Dr. Josiah H. Penniman as provost and at the same time created "an executive and administrative office to be designated president of the university," to be filled later. Dr. Penniman has been acting provost since the resignation of Dr. Edgar Fahs Smith in 1920. He was graduated from the University of Pennsylvania, in the class of 1890, and joined the university faculty in 1892 as a teacher of English. From 1897 to 1909 he was dean of the college and became vice provost in 1911.

The resolutions of the board of trustees provide that the president of the university shall be the chief executive officer of the university, "who shall have charge of the plans, policies and development of the corporate business, structural and financial interests and activities of the university, and under whose direction the guidance and management of its executive and administrative duties generally shall fall." . . . "The changes in the existing statutes necessitated by the creation of the office of president and the selection of a suitable person to fill such office of president" were referred to a committee of five trustees announced as follows: Charles L. Borie, Jr., James C. Bell, Charles Day, George W. Wickersham, Louis C. Madeira, *chairman*, and Randal Morgan, *ex officio*.

EDITORIAL NOTE

MANUSCRIPTS intended for publication in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY and other communications may be addressed to any one of the editors, but should as a rule be sent to the senior editor, whose direct address is Grand Central Terminal, New York City, during January and February, and Garrison-on-Hudson, N. Y., during the rest of the year.

The editors trust that the cooperation given by the teachers, investigators and administrators of the country to the journal during the eight years since its foundation will be continued, so that we may have a weekly journal maintaining the highest standards and covering the whole field of education, including its relations to the social order.

SCHOOL AND SOCIETY is open to the freest discussion of educational problems, no communication ever having been rejected on ac-

count of the opinions expressed, however reactionary or however radical these may have appeared to be. As only two or three leading articles can be printed each week it is possible to use only part of the manuscripts submitted; the position of the editors is difficult because the return of articles is usually due to lack of space rather than to inadequate quality. The manuscripts submitted that do not deserve publication are but few.

The editors are glad to receive leading articles which should preferably be two to four thousand words in length, and only under exceptional circumstances should exceed five thousand words. Articles on foreign movements and on international aspects of education are particularly welcome. Accounts and summaries of experimental research work and educational statistics are also especially wanted.

For a weekly journal information concerning current educational events and news items of general interest are of fundamental importance; in this direction the editors need the fullest cooperation, for in a country so large and in a field so wide, such notes come most promptly and correctly on the initiative of those who are informed.

Discussion and correspondence and reviews of current educational literature are again particularly needed by a weekly journal. The editors can not ordinarily ask for discussions on diverse aspects of educational problems, including those treated by articles in the journal, for it is the editorial policy not to advocate any particular standpoint. It is consequently desirable that a considerable number of discussions of from one hundred to a thousand words in length be submitted; these will as a rule receive prompt publication.

Occasion may be taken in conclusion to refer to the circumstance that the editors will appreciate the assistance of readers of SCHOOL AND SOCIETY in making the existence and quality of the journal known as widely as may be, more especially among those not professionally engaged in educational work. The journal has never had and does not want any subsidy, neither does it ask any assistance that is not based on enlightened self-interest. It may, however, be claimed reasonably that the adequate support of a weekly journal of the character of SCHOOL AND SOCIETY by subscribers and by advertisers is of concern to education in America and to those who are engaged in educational work.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

DR. CHARLES D. WALCOTT, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution and president of the National Academy of Sciences, formerly director of the United States Geological Survey, was elected president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at the Convocation Week meeting of the national scientific societies held in Boston from December 26 to December 30.

PROFESSOR LEWIS M. TERMAN, of Stanford University, was elected president of the American Psychological Association at the meeting held last week at Harvard University.

PROFESSOR GUY M. WHIPPLE, of the University of Michigan, gave the address of the chairman of the Section of Education at the Boston meeting of the American Association. This address, the subject of which is "The intelligence testing program and its objectors—conscientious and otherwise," will be printed in an early issue of this journal.

PRESIDENT FRANK L. MCVEY, of the University of Kentucky, was elected to the presidency of the American Association of State Universities at the November meeting in Washington. Dr. McVey has been secretary-treasurer of the association for several years.

AT the reopening ceremonies of the University of Paris held in the Sorbonne, the address of the day was delivered by the rector of the university, M. Paul Appell. On this occasion, the diploma and the insignia of doctor *honoris causa* were presented to: Mr. Masaryk, president of the republic of Czechoslovakia and professor of philosophy in the University of

Prague; Mr. Benès, minister of foreign affairs of Czechoslovakia and professor of sociology at the University of Prague; Dr. Bordet, professor at the University of Brussels; Dr. Ehlers, professor at the University of Copenhagen; Mr. Lawrence Lowell, president of Harvard University; Mr. Lugeon, correspondent of the Academy of Sciences and professor at the University of Lausanne; Dr. A. A. Michelson, associate member of the Academy of Sciences and professor at the University of Chicago; M. Pirenne, professor of the University of Ghent; M. Rajna, professor of the University of Florence, and Mr. Elihu Root, former secretary of state of the United States.

DR. BESSIE LEE GAMBRILL, head of the department of education at the New Jersey State Normal School at Trenton, has been appointed professor of elementary education at Yale University.

HAROLD G. MOULTON, professor at the University of Chicago since 1910, has become head of the Institute of Economics recently established by the Carnegie Corporation at Washington. The new institute, which will cooperate with various departments of the government and with the United States Chamber of Commerce, will be organized to afford students opportunity for economic research and to present its results in untechnical form in pamphlets, monographs and special reports.

GEORGE H. LYMAN, chief inspector of plant pathology in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, has been elected dean of the West Virginia University College of Agriculture. Dr. Lyman assumed the duties of his new position on January 1. He succeeds Dr. J. L. Coulter, resigned.

F. C. BOLTON, professor of electrical engineering, has been appointed dean of the School of Engineering of Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas.

DR. HARLAN D. UPDEGRAFF, professor of educational administration at the University of Pennsylvania, has been appointed by Governor Pinchot of Pennsylvania to make a survey of the cost of education in the state.

DR. EMILIE W. MCVEA, president of Sweet Briar College, has been appointed by Governor E. Lee Trinkle a member of the board of trustees of the University of Virginia. Dr. McVea is the first woman to be appointed to such a position in Virginia.

THOMAS E. MITTEN, president of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company, has been elected a member of the Board of Education of Philadelphia to succeed the late John Wanamaker.

DR. E. L. HOLTON, dean of the summer school and head of the department of education in Kansas State Agricultural College, was elected president of the Kansas State Teachers' Association at the annual meeting, held in Topeka on December 2.

MR. F. M. RUSSELL, of the Douglass School, Cincinnati, Ohio, has resigned to accept a position as assistant superintendent of colored schools in Baltimore.

AFTER a service of thirty-eight years in school work in New York State, the last five years as chief of the Administration Division of the State Education Department, Hiram C. Case retired on December 1.

PRESIDENT SOULE, of the University of Georgia, has returned from Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, where he attended the Conference of Economic Expansion and Commercial Instruction and the World Cotton Congress. Dr. Soule was chosen first vice-president of the Conference of Economic Expansion and Commercial Instruction and vice-president of the World Cotton Congress.

DR. NELSON GLENN MCCRAE, professor of Latin language and literature in Columbia University, has returned to this country after having spent a year in Italy, where he was a lecturer at the American Academy in Rome. Early in November he spoke at a meeting of the New York Classical Club on the subject, "The American Academy in Rome."

AT the invitation of the Japanese government, the Reverend Dr. Herbert H. Gowen, professor of Oriental languages in the University of Washington, will give a series of lectures early this year at Japanese universities.

PROFESSOR WILLIAM L. DE BAUFRE, head of the department of mechanical engineering of the University of Nebraska, has been given permission to absent himself from the univer-

sity to whatever extent is necessary in order to proceed with his work as a member of the Helium Board of the U. S. Bureau of Mines. This board is studying methods and apparatus for the production of helium for balloons used in the army and navy.

PROFESSOR MCHENRY RHOADS, of the University of Kentucky, delivered the principal address at the laying of the cornerstone of the new $300,000 high school at Owensboro, on November 8.

A SERIES of demonstration lectures on physics is being given on Friday evenings at the California Institute of Technology for the benefit of high school teachers and others interested. These lectures, which are given by various members of the staff, are similar to those given in the regular sophomore course. Recently Professor Darwin gave a lecture on the gyroscope and Professor Epstein one on hydronamics. There has been an attendance of one or two hundred at these lectures, some teachers coming thirty or forty miles.

QUOTATIONS

THE RHODES SCHOLARS

IN another column we print a summary of the statement issued by the Rhodes Trust on the work of the Rhodes Scholars for the academic year 1921-1922; and as the statement, which is issued annually, is the sole one by which the public at large can form an opinion of the progress of Mr. Rhodes's great experiment, it can not fail to have an interest for the whole of the English-speaking world. The statement gives particulars of the studies of the scholars, of the degrees and honors taken by them during the year, of the university scholarships and prizes won by them, of their athletic record, and of books published by members of their body. During the year under review 156 scholars came from the British Empire and 144 from the United States. Perhaps one of the first things to strike the reader who knows Oxford and remembers Rhodes's own devotion, in face of enormous difficulties, to the particular culture which the Oxford of his day gave, and which he certainly wished his scholars to share, is the preponderance of scholars who are reading, not "Greats" or Modern History, the two principal schools of humanism, but the more strictly practical and utilitarian courses, in particular the Law School and Science. Such, it is worth noting, is the tendency of the day; but, were Rhodes alive, it might not be wholly to his taste to find so few of his young men taking advantage of what the world has rightly regarded as the most typical and valuable gift that Oxford can offer—the philosophic outlook on man and his institutions rather than accurate knowledge of physical systems, the attitude of criticism, and, if necessary, of suspended judgment rather than positive attainment in the fields of verifiable fact. But the departure, if it is a departure, from an older ideal is probably not to be attributed wholly to the predilections of the scholars themselves. It is enough, however, to record the tendency without exaggerating and still less without deploring it; for of the intellectual activities of the scholars while they are at Oxford the report provides ample evidence.

Meanwhile another important change is taking place, and will in time produce far-reaching effects. The Trust itself, as Lord Milner showed in his speech at the annual dinner at Oxford last June, is undergoing an evolution of its own. It has begun a gradual transference of its powers which will eventually result in a transformation of the system by which up to the present the scholarships have been mainly awarded. Ultimately, all the scholars are to be elected entirely by former scholars in their country. Already the American scholars are all chosen by ex-scholars in America, and nearly all the Canadian scholars by ex-scholars in Canada, subject in both cases to the final confirmation of the trustees; and a beginning has just been made in the same direction in Australia and New Zealand, where the process is bound to be more gradual because of the great distances and the comparatively small number of former scholars capable of being electors. It is obvious that this policy must tend to strengthen the corporate feeling, which perhaps is particularly strong in Australia, between Rhodes Scholars past and present. It is, moreover, desirable for practical reasons that men who have had experience of Oxford, and know what Oxford gives, should have the principal voice in selecting their successors. Now that the experiment

has been going on for nearly twenty years, it should not be long before there is a supply of fit ex-scholars everywhere to do this work on behalf of the trustees, though it is perhaps a little surprising that so few ex-scholars have as yet risen to positions of public leadership (which was Rhodes's underlying idea) except in the domain of teaching. The report notes the death of Sir George Parkin, to whom the scholarship system, and, indeed, the whole empire, owes a deep debt of gratitude for a long life of devoted work. He died in June—almost in harness, as he would have wished to die—and within a week of making his last speech to a great gathering of scholars.—The London *Times*.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

A SCALE FOR MEASURING HABITS AND PRACTICES IN HEALTH AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION[1]

WITH the remarkable progress that has been made in the construction and application of scales, measures, standards, and tests of intelligence and achievement in the past decade it is astonishing that more has not been done in the construction of scales for the measurement of the social results of instruction and in the determination of standards in this field. Even in the "practical subjects," taught in the continuation and evening schools, although these schools are well established, little has been done to determine in a scientific way the results of instruction as it affects the life of the child outside of school. The interest in tests so far has been largely in those that propose to measure intelligence, on the one hand, and achievement in the conventional subjects on the other.

Conscious of this situation, it was with trepidation that I started out to construct a scale for the measurement of those practices and habits that indicate health and safety. Much preliminary work had been done in preparing score cards for use in instruction. Examples of these are the health scores and the weight card of the Tuberculosis Association. These score cards were generally put into the hands of children. Through them the children in the upper grades could keep track of their weight and other obvious practices. The score cards did not pretend to measure health. They were designed as teaching instruments and were used to develop habits of a very limited kind.

There are two types of measurement of the social results of instruction possible. First, one might measure the results in the community as a whole. An illustration of this type is outlined in *The Results of Safety Instruction in the St. Louis Public Schools*.[2] A second type of measurement is the result of instruction in the individual. That is, a measurement of the extent to which health and safety habits and practices have been developed. This scale attempts to measure the results in the individual.[3]

The construction of a health test, however, involves a different consideration from those involved in the construction of a score card or of other tests. It is not merely what one knows that makes him healthy. Health is largely a matter of habits and practices and results or is maintained by consistent practices of the appropriate kind. Moreover, in the construction of a health scale one must observe the psychological principle that when one habit has been definitely established this habit does not guarantee that other equally valuable habits have been fixed. In the construction of a scale it is necessary to include a list of all practices which are the result of habit and upon which health directly depends. Furthermore, a scale for the measurement of health and safety habits and practices cannot determine with the same definiteness and accuracy the results of teaching that a scale for the measurement of the fundamentals in arithmetic can. The same criticism may, however, be offered to any scale for the measurement of social practices. This fact, however, does not invalidate the scale either as a measure or as a teaching instrument.

[1] See *Education in Health*, by E. George Payne, Chapter XI, Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago and New York.

[2] Annual Report of the Board of Education of St. Louis, 1919-1920, pages 90 to 103.

[3] See *A Scale for Measuring Personal and Social Behavior*, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

A SCALE FOR MEASURING PERSONAL AND SOCIAL BEHAVIOR, HABITS AND PRACTICES IN HEALTH AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION

TOTAL POINTS—500

A—355

I. Food 83

Variety, 29; quantity, 20; regularity, 14; manner of eating, 20.

II. Air 30

Breathing, 9; bedroom air, 12; schoolroom and study, 5; time in open air, 4.

III. Drink 25

Amount, 2; regularity, 3; sanitation, 14; tea and coffee, 6.

IV. Exercise 45

Variety, 30; regularity, 15.

V. Sleep 28

Amount, 15; regularity, 10; manner, 3.

VI. Posture 15

Sitting, 6; standing, 3; walking, 3; work, 3.

VII. Cleanliness 91

Hands and nails, 35; teeth, mouth and head, 16; bathing, 20; bowel movement, 20.

VIII. Clothing 34

Cleanliness, 13; suitability, 10; miscellaneous, 11.

IX. Indications of health 4

Physique, 1; height, 1; weight, 1; vital index, 1.

B—75

X. Safety habits 75

On the streets, 31; at home, 23; in school, 12; at play, 9.

C—70

XI. Social and civic habits and practices 70

Home, 20; school, 20; streets, 10; community, 20.

TENTATIVE STANDARDS

End of Grade	A	B	C	Total
I	247	72	10	329
II	259	72	15	341
III	272	72	20	364
IV	285	72	25	382
V	295	75	30	400
VI	305	75	40	420
VII	325	75	70	470
VIII	355	75	70	500

Items I-VIII in the scale include the practices upon which health directly depends. They are as follows: food, drink, exercise, sleep and rest, posture, cleanliness, and clothing. Items IX-XI contain elements only indirectly related to health practices and are indications of health safety habits and social practices.[4]

Perhaps all that we can do in the space permitted for this article is to indicate the method of constructing the scale to show something of the method of its use and finally to point some few results.

The starting point in the construction of the scale was to include the practices which we had found to be effective in our open air schools for pre-tubercular and anemic children, especially the practices in the St. Louis schools. The practices had proved valuable through an experimental period of ten years. About five hundred children pass through these schools in St. Louis each year, and the average period of attendance is about ten months, yet the children are so well restored to health that they are returned to their home environment, and no children have been returned to the school for further attention along health lines. An annual medical examination indicates that the work has had permanent results. Naturally, we include as a minimum the health practices found essential in these schools.

Next to the open air schools we searched score cards, books on hygiene, and other sources to determine whether we had a comprehensive list of practices and we added many practices to those already listed. Then we sent out the selected list to medical experts, educators, and laymen for criticism, and thus finally determined what we should include.

After determining the points to be included in a scale for the measurement of health and safety practices, the next problem was to weigh the various items. The weight given to each point was determined by two factors: (a) the difficulty of forming the habit or practice: and (b) the value of the habit to the child when once formed. The determination of the value of the score was made by giving the children a medical examination and comparing their medical record with the health practices as indicated by the scale. The best and worst conditioned among ten thousand grade and junior

[4] The Key to the Scale which is necessary for its interpretation may be found in *Education in Health*, Chapter XII, or in *An Analysis of Instruction for Habits and Practices in Health and Accident Prevention*, see above.

high school children were examined and a satisfactory correlation was indicated.

Furthermore, the tentative standards were arranged from the scores of the best conditioned children for obvious reasons.[5] We started out with the assumption that health education had been sadly neglected and that standards of value must therefore represent, not the median attainment of a large number of children, but the attainment of a selected group. The standard, however, is not higher than can be attained by any child. These standards may be regarded as ideal rather than as the degree of attainment upon first presentation. They represent what should be expected at the end of one semester of instruction.

The significant fact about any test is after all its value in use, and it is from this basis that I should like to have the health scale judged. In the first place, it has selected the children that have had bad health habits. One teacher in a community typical of a considerable part of the city asked the children of a first grade class to stand and asked all who had coffee for breakfast to come to the front of the room; all except one marched forward. In a school of 975 pupils there were found to be ten per cent. or more underweight. The outcome of this discovery was the formation of a class of the mothers of these children to meet in the afternoon once each week during the school year to receive instruction in the proper feeding of children. This class of mothers is still meeting with remarkable results.

The application of the scale in one school indicated the condition presented in the following table. The summary of what the children ate and drank for breakfast is as follows:

Total Number of Pupils, 287

Number	*Drink*
153	Coffee
55	Milk
34	Nothing or no answer
24	Cocoa (chocolate 1)
17	Tea
2	Water
2	Postum

[5] See *Education in Health*, p. 233.

Number	*Food*
100	Cake
77	Bread
48	Nothing or no answer
45	Eggs
21	Doughnuts
18	Buns or rolls
13	Oatmeal (cooked breakfast food)
12	Toast
10	Cornflakes (prepared breakfast food)
8	Pancakes
6	Bacon (other meat, 2)
6	Fruit of any kind
4	Pie
3	Cheese
2	Rice
2	Potatoes
2	Jelly
1	Grapenuts
1	Sandwich
1	Candy
1	Waffles
1	Pickles

The principal says of this situation: "I wonder how the parents of these pupils could be caused *to believe* that coffee, tea, cake and doughnuts are poor breakfast materials, especially poor for children. The parents do not read either newspaper or magazines as a rule: in fact, many cannot read English. The mothers do not attend meetings, usually too many encumbrances. Notice the small number reporting fruit of any kind. I wonder why. It can scarcely be a matter of expense, for prunes and other dried fruits are not high."

While this scale perhaps possesses all the defects of an effort in a new field, it has the pragmatic value of making the teachers and principals conscious of the conditions in the school that account for a great deal of physical indisposition, inattentiveness to school work, lack of concentration, and a failure in school progress. It has not only in individual cases led to the correction of causes of sickness, but also has improved the attendance in schools that have used the scale as a measuring and teaching instrument, and has affected favorably the health and accident conditions in the school community.

E. GEORGE PAYNE.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

EDUCATIONAL REPORTS

ANALYSIS OF THE WORK OF THE SUPERVISOR

THE work of supervision is one of the relatively new activities in our school organization. In most of our school systems supervision is one of the duties of the school superintendent. In many cities supervisors are employed to take charge of the primary, grammar, or high school work. In addition we find supervisors of many of the special subjects.

In many cases problems have arisen relative to the overlapping of authority. When it has been the duty of the superintendent to do both the work of the administrator and supervisor, he has frequently failed to discriminate as to the types of work he was performing at different times. Few attempts have been made to analyze the duties of the superintendent as an administrator and as a supervisor, or to analyze the authority of the supervisor in relation to the administrator and to the teacher.

During the summer term at the University of Wyoming a group of principals and superintendents who were in a class in supervision took for one problem the formulation of the work of the supervisor in relation to the other persons in the school system. The class was organized into groups with a chairman. Each group formulated its analysis and afterwards the chairmen of the different groups met together and worked out the analysis which follows. The members of the class realize that it is not complete nor final but hope that it may serve as a working basis for further analysis.

I. Cooperative work of administrator and supervisor.
  A. Outline of general aims and plans.
    1. Deciding on relative emphasis to be placed on different departments.
    2. Coordination of units in the system.
  B. Course of study.
    1. Formulation of general aims.
    2. Approval of supervisor-teacher conference.
  C. Text books, supplies, equipment.
    1. Approval of recommendations of supervisor and teacher.
  D. Selection and placement of teachers.
    1. According to special aptitudes.
    2. Rating of teachers.
  E. Securing the best physical conditions.
  F. Promotion of community interests.
    1. Parent-teachers' associations.
    2. Literary and musical societies.
    3. Educational and athletic contests.
    4. Exhibits of school work.
  G. Securing professional recognition for teachers.

II. Cooperative work of supervisor and teacher.
  A. Course of study.
    1. Formulation of course of study for approval by administrator.
  B. Textbooks, supplies, equipment.
    1. Determine needs.
    2. Make recommendations.
  C. Grading and placing of pupils.
    1. Normal children.
    2. Sub-and super-normal children.
  D. Carry into effect the program for community interests outlined by administrator and supervisor.
  E. Raising prestige of teacher in community.

III. Work of supervisor in relation to teacher.
  A. Formulation of general method of supervision.
    1. Self-analysis of work of supervision.
    2. Conferences.
      (a) Before-visits to discuss plans and aims.
      (b) After-visits to discuss work done.
  B. Evaluation of work of pupils and teacher.
    1. Observation.
    2. Standard tests.
    3. Reaction of pupils to school and society.
      (a) Ability of pupils for self-government.
      (b) Attitude toward public property.
      (c) Attitude toward school work.
  C. Improvement of teachers.
    1. Development of professional spirit and efficiency.
      (a) Teachers' meetings; local, state, national.
      (b) Demonstration teaching.
        (1) By supervisor.
        (2) By teachers.
      (c) Development of professional code.
      (d) Directing observations of expert teaching.
      (e) Professional reading.
      (f) Talks from outside talent.
    2. Constructive criticism.
      (a) Judicious commendation.
      (b) Suggesting improvements.
        (1) Privately.
        (2) In teachers' meetings.

IV. Final report to administrator.

C. R. MAXWELL
UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING